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# Review

# **Myocardial Infarction in the Elderly**

## Amelia Carro, Juan Carlos Kaski\*

Cardiovascular Sciences Research Centre, Division of Clinical Sciences, St George's University of London, London, United Kingdom

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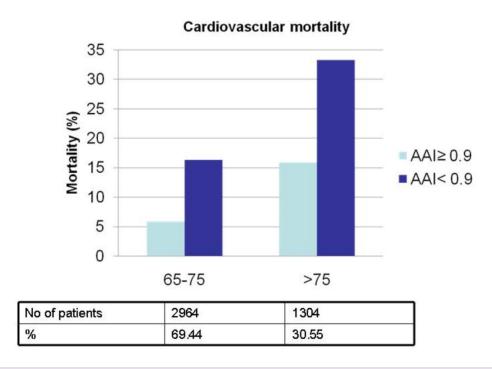
ABSTRACT: Advances in pharmacological treatment and effective early myocardial revascularization have –in recent years- led to improved clinical outcomes in patients with acute myocardial infarction (AMI). However, it has been suggested that compared to younger subjects, elderly AMI patients are less likely to receive evidence-based treatment, including myocardial revascularization therapy. Several reasons have been postulated to explain this trend, including uncertainty regarding the true benefits of the interventions commonly used in this setting as well as increased risk mainly associated with comorbidities. The diagnosis, management, and post-hospitalization care of elderly patients presenting with an acute coronary syndrome pose many difficulties at present. A complex interplay of variables such as comorbidities, functional and socioeconomic status, side effects associated with multiple drug administration, and individual biologic variability, all contribute to creating a complex clinical scenario. In this complex setting, clinicians are often required to extrapolate evidence-based results obtained in cardiovascular trials from which older patients are often, implicitly or explicitly, excluded. This article reviews current recommendations regarding management of AMI in the elderly.

Key words: Management of elderly patients; acute myocardial infarction; age; myocardial reperfusion

Cardiovascular heart disease represents the leading cause of death in both men and women older than 65 years [1-3]. The prevalence and the severity of atherosclerotic coronary artery disease (CAD) increase with age in both men and women. Autopsy studies have shown that more than 50% of the people older than 60 years have significant CAD, with increasing prevalence of left main and/or triple-vessel CAD with older age [4]. Subclinical vascular disease, i.e. abnormal echocardiograms, increased carotid intima-media thickness or an abnormal ankle brachial common in elderly people electrocardiographic (ECG) evidence of myocardial infarction (MI). In the Cardiovascular Health Study, such abnormalities were detected in 22 percent of women and 33 percent of men aged 65 to 70 years and 43 percent of women and 45 percent of men older than 85 years (Figure 1) [5, 6]. The lifetime risk of developing symptomatic CAD is estimated as 1 in 3 for men and 1 in 4 for women, with onset of symptoms about 10 years earlier in men than women and with hypertension, diabetes, and lipid abnormalities influencing individual risk [7]. In 2 large registries that collectively enrolled 69,000 acute coronary syndrome (ACS) patients, 32% [8] and 35% [9] of the patients were ≥75 years old. However, older patients are generally underrepresented in trials [10]. Participation of elderly patients in ACS trials has not increased over the 1970-2000 period, compared to previous years, despite the fact that this population has continued to expand [11-14].

The absence of reliable data regarding elderly patients often results in these high-risk individuals being subjected to more conservative treatment strategies, which at times diverge significantly from recommendations in accepted guidelines. This article addresses some of the clinical issues that affect optimal care of elderly patients with persistent ST segment elevation MI (STEMI) and highlights findings in recent studies that provide new insights into the complex area of cardiovascular care in the elderly.

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**Figure 1: CV mortality in Cardiovascular Heart Study participants without CVD at baseline.** Older people (>75) represented one third of the population, but had a significantly higher cardiovascular mortality (RR 1.12; 95%CI: 1.08, 1.17) when compared to the group aged 65-75. AAI was also an independent predictor of CV mortality (RR 2.03; 95%CI: 1.22, 3.37)

## **CLINICAL PRESENTATION**

Although the absolute number of patients with STEMI increases with age, STEMI accounts for a smaller proportion of all ACS admissions in older subgroups ( $<30\% \ge 75$  years of age) [9].

## Clinical profile

Presenting symptoms of acute MI differ in the elderly from those in younger patients. They are more likely to be termed "atypical" because the description differs from the classical one of subesternal pressure with exertion [15]. When pain is the presenting complaint, it may be different in character or location, and sometimes appears as an upper abdomen pain rather than a crushing or squeezing subesternal sensation. Elderly patients have changes in pain perception and altered ischemic thresholds [16], but the exact explanation for atypical pain syndromes is not known. In the National Registry of Myocardial infarction (NRMI), chest pain at presentation occurred in 89.9% of STEMI patients <65 years versus 56.8% of those

≥85 years of age [17]. In the Worcester Heart Attack Study, chest pain was reported in 63% of the overall population, but was reported in less than half of the women over age 75 years (45.5%) [18].

Symptoms may be described primarily as dyspnea, syncope, shoulder or back pain, weakness, fatigue (in women), acute confusion, epicardial discomfort and may be precipitated by concurrent illnesses [19]. Age related changes, comorbidities and other mechanisms had been suggested for these particular presentations (Table 1). However, complications derived from MI may be the only presenting sign. In the NRMI registry, acute heart failure as evidenced by Killip class ≥2 at presentation occurred in 11.7% of STEMI patients <65 years versus nearly half (44.6%) of those ≥85 years of age [17]. The common occurrence of heart failure and atypical symptoms in older patients may divert diagnostic suspicion away from an acute ischemic event. Accordingly, a diagnosis of "other" (as opposed to unstable angina, rule-out MI, or MI) was more often recorded at admission in older adults (5% of those <65 versus 24% of those ≥85 years of age) [17].

Table 1. Pathophysiology of atypical STEMI presentations in the elderly

LEADING SYMPTOM	PROPOSED MECHANISMS
Dyspnea	<ul> <li>Transient rise in LV pressure during ischemic event</li> <li>Acute left ventricular systolic dysfunction</li> <li>Age-dependent pulmonary changes</li> <li>Associated lung disease</li> </ul>
Atypical Symptoms	Comorbid conditions (pain distracters)
Absent/Atypical chest pain	•Altered pain perception:  -Increased level of endogenous opioids  -Increased opiod receptor sensitivity  -Impaired autonomic peripheral nerve and central mechanisms  -Sensory neuropathy  •Ischemic preconditioning:  -Higher prevalence of repetitive episodes of ischemia  -Higher prevalence of DM  -Higher prevalence of multivessel disease  -Higher prevalence of collateral flow  •Impaired ability to recall/report symptoms
Neurologic symptoms	Associated cerebrovascular disease
(Syncope, stroke, acute confusion)	<ul> <li>Acute reduction of central nervous system blood supply</li> <li>Associated complications (embolism, hemorrhage)</li> </ul>

LV: left ventricular. DM: diabetes mellitus

# Electrocardiogram

The ECG of older patients may demonstrate a variety of abnormalities which act as important confounders in the ability to electrocardiographically classify these forms of ACS. The occurrence of left bundle branch block (LBBB) in the elderly is higher than in younger population. Among STEMI patients in the NRMI registry, ST-segment elevation was present on the ECG of 96.3% of patients <65 years but only 69.9% of those ≥85 years of age [17]. Conversely, LBBB occurred in 5% of those <65 years but 33.8% of those ≥85 years of age. In the combined NRMI 1, 2 and 3 data set, an increasingly proportion in the prevalence of non-Q wave infarctions was observed (from 45% in 1994 to 63% in 1999, p=0.0001) [20]. In addition, elderly people might present preexisting ST-T segment abnormalities that mimic changes related to myocardial ischemia, even in the absence of ACS [21].

#### **Biomarkers**

The universal definition of myocardial infarction requires evidence of an increase and decrease in cardiac troponin (cTn) in a clinical setting suggestive of myocardial ischemia with, together with clinical symptoms, new ischemic ECG changes, or imaging findings of new loss of myocardium [22]. However, troponin may be increased in patients with a variety of chronic cardiac conditions (Table 2) [23-25] and, to a lesser extent, also in apparently healthy persons [26, 27]. Eggers et al. showed that cTnI >99th percentile, in combination with significant ST-T segment abnormalities, were present in 0.6% of 995 subjects participating in the Prospective vears Investigation of the Vasculature in Uppsala Seniors (PIVUS) Study [28]. Therefore, the detection of a true and significant increase and/or decrease in serially measured troponin is of critical importance to correctly establish the diagnosis of AMI and discriminate ischemic or other acute causes from chronic causes of troponin increase. Clinicians must be aware that troponin elevation can be seen in other conditions than AMI, and that many of these conditions are increasingly prevalent with age (Table 2). Failure to acknowledge the differential diagnosis of elevated troponin not only would lead to overdiagnosis of MI, but it would also misdiagnose the real cause and the lack of its appropriate treatment [29].

## **Delayed presentation**

Prehospital delays are common in older adults, possibly related to diminished chest pain sensation,

Table 2. Etiology of elevated troponin levels in the absence of MI

DISEASE	MECHANISM FOR Tn RELEASE
NON-TRHOMBOTIC	CARDIAC TISSUE DAMAGE
Congestive heart failure	<ul> <li>Release of cytokines</li> <li>Destruction of contractile proteins</li> <li>LVH</li> <li>Global wall stretch</li> <li>Impaired hemodynamic function</li> <li>Concomitant renal disease</li> </ul>
Coronary vasospasm	Reversible/Irreversible tissue damage     Altered transient membrane permeability
Cardiac trauma	<ul><li> Myocite damage</li><li> Altered myocite integrity</li><li> Trauma to coronary arteries</li></ul>
Myocarditis/Perimyocarditis	<ul> <li>Troponin spillage from myocardial cell necrosis</li> <li>Damage of the outermost layer of the myocardium</li> </ul>
Pulmonary embolism	<ul><li>Right ventricular dilation</li><li>Right ventricular strain</li></ul>
Postcardiac surgery/ablation Cardioversion Cardiopulmonary resuscitation	<ul> <li>Prolonged hypotension and hypoxemia</li> <li>Mechanical and electrical trauma (chest compressions, defibrillation)</li> </ul>
Sepsis/critically ill patients	<ul> <li>Release of cytokines and reactive oxygen species</li> <li>Direct effect of bacterial endotoxines</li> <li>Concomitant myocarditis</li> <li>Prolonged hypotension</li> <li>Dysfunction of the coronary autorregulation</li> </ul>
End-stage renal disease	<ul> <li>Decreased renal elimination</li> <li>Uremic myo/pericarditis</li> <li>Congestive heart failure</li> <li>LVH</li> <li>Hemoconcentration following dialysis</li> </ul>
Arrhythmias (tachycardias, bradycardias)	<ul><li>Hemodinamic compromise</li><li>Reversible myocite injury</li></ul>
Stroke	Neurally mediated myocite damage
Epileptic seizures	Neurally mediated myocite damage     Transient supply-demand mismatch secondary to increased afterload by tonic skeletal muscle contraction
	TIVE cTn TESTING
Heterophile antibodies Reumatohid factor Macroenzymes Circulating antibodies (vacinnations, inmunotherapies, blood transfusions) Fibrin clots	Interference in several inmunoassays, cardiac Tn included
Malfunction of the analyzer	Analyzer error

Tn: Troponin. LVH: left ventricular hypertrophy

cognitive impairment, comorbid illness, or social constraints [30]. Atypical symptoms may slow the

patient's own recognition of an acute cardiac event, and are further confounded by socioeconomic and

cognitive factors [30-32]. In the Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events (GRACE) registry, the median time from symptom onset to presentation was 2.3 hours in those under 45 years, but 3.0 hours over age 85 [33]. Those with STEMI were more likely to present promptly than those with non-STEMI (median 2.3 hours versus 3.0 hours). Older and male patients, diabetics, and those with prior angina were more likely to delay, whereas patients with diaphoresis, acute heart failure, severe chest pain, or traveling by ambulance were less likely to delay [34]. In the Cooperative Cardiovascular Project, the predictors of late arrival (>6 hours after symptom onset) included

advanced age (65-74y: OR 1.35 95% CI 0.91, 1.98; ≥75y: OR 1.53 95% CI 0.89, 2.61) and diabetes (OR 1.19 95% CI 1.02, 1.37), whereas experiencing chest pain as the chief complaint predicted early presentation (OR 0.78, 95% CI 0.68, 0.98) [35]. The mean time from symptom onset to presentation in community elderly (≥75 years of age) was notably longer than among the elderly in fibrinolytic trials (4.7 versus 2.1 hours, respectively) [31] [36, 37]. However, even in the latter, older age is associated with delayed presentation as well as the increased risk of adverse in-hospital events [37, 38].

Table 3: Recommendations on STEMI treatments on AHA/ACC [41] and ESC [39] guidelines.

Differences between American and European societies.

THERAPY	AHA/ACC GUIDELINES	ESC GUIDELINES
REPERFUSION THERAPY	No age restriction (IA)	No age restriction (IA)
PRIMARY PCI	No age restriction (IA)	No age restriction (IA)
FIBRINOLYSIS	No age restriction (IB)	No age restriction (IA)
ANTIPLATELET CO- THERAPY FOR PCI	<ul> <li>ASPIRIN: No age restriction. If already on Aspirin 75-325 mg before PCI (IA). Loading dose (300-325 mg) if not on Aspirin (IC)</li> <li>THIENOPYRIDINE: No age restriction. Options: <ul> <li>a. CLOPIDOGREL: 300-600mg (IC)</li> <li>b. PRASUGREL: 60 mg (IB)</li> </ul> </li> <li>ANTI IIbIIIa No age restriction <ul> <li>a.Abciximab(IIaA)</li> <li>b.Eptifibatide (IIaB)</li> <li>c.Tirofiban (IIaB)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul> <li>ASPIRIN (IB)</li> <li>CLOPIDOGREL loading dose (IC)</li> <li>ANTI IIbIIIa No age restriction <ul> <li>a.Abciximab (IIaA)</li> <li>b.Eptifibatide (IIbB)</li> <li>c.Tirofiban (IIbC)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
ATIPLATELET COTHERAPY FOR FIBRINOLYSIS	<ul> <li>ASPIRIN: No age restriction. Loading dose: 162- 325 mg orally; maintenance dose of 75-162 mg/daily (I A)</li> <li>CLOPIDOGREL: Age differences on loading dose         <ul> <li>a.oral loading dose if age &gt;75 years (IIaB)</li> <li>b.if age ≤75 years start with maintenance dose (IA)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul> <li>ASPIRIN oral (soluble or chewable/non-enteric-coated) or i.v. dose of aspirin (IB) plus</li> <li>CLOPIDOGREL: <u>Age differences on loading dose</u></li> <li>a.oral loading dose if age ≤75 years (IB)</li> <li>b.if age &gt;75 years start with maintenance dose (IIaB)</li> </ul>
ANTITHROMBIN THERAPY	<ul> <li>Unfractioned Heparin: No age restriction.         Weight adjustance</li> <li>Enoxaparin: <u>Age adjustance</u> of bolus and maintenance dose</li> <li>Bivaluridin: No age restriction. Reasonable choice for STEMI patients undergoing PCI who are at high risk of bleeding (IIaB)</li> <li>Fondaparinux: No age restriction. Weight adjustance</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Unfractioned Heparin: No age restriction. Weight adjustance</li> <li>Enoxaparin: Age adjustance of bolus and maintenance dose</li> <li>Bivaluridin: No age restriction. Reasonable choice for STEMI patients undergoing PCI who are at high risk of bleeding (IIaB)</li> <li>Fondaparinux: No age restriction. Weight adjustance</li> </ul>

Age considerations are underlined

PCI: percutaneous coronary intervention

## REPERFUSION

## **Elegibility**

General agreement exists that eligible STEMI patients who receive reperfusion (fibrinolytic therapy or percutaneous coronary intervention-PCI) have a lower risk of death than those who do not. The guidelines recommend considering time to presentation, time to PCI, and risk of STEMI, along with contraindications to treatment, when selecting reperfusion strategy; all of these factors are altered by age [39-41]. Numerous clinical trials have compared fibrinolytic regimens with each other [42-49] or have compared fibrinolytic regimens with direct PCI [43] [50-55]. Lack of consensus on reperfusion eligibility for AMI in the elderly includes lack of clinical trial data (frequent exclusion of patients  $\geq 75$  y), as well as comorbidity and delayed presentation [55, 56]. In addition, availability of reperfusion determines its selection, with fewer than half of elderly with STEMI (~40% of those ≥75 years of age) currently presenting to hospitals with PCI capability [57]. In the GRACE registry, 30% of STEMI patients presenting within 12 hours of symptoms did not receive therapy [58]. Factors associated with failure to receive reperfusion were similar to those associated with presentation delay: older age (≥75 years; odds ratio [OR], 2.63; 95% CI, 2.04 to 3.38), female sex, absence of chest pain, and congestive heart failure [58]. Many elderly STEMI patients also do not meet ideal criteria for reperfusion therapy for either PCI or fibrinolysis. Common reasons for excluding elderly from reperfusion are their delayed presentation (>6 hours from symptom onset) and ECG changes that are abnormal at baseline or of unclear duration [59]. Therefore, uncertain symptoms or **ECGs** presentation, coexisting comorbid geriatric conditions, and patient preferences may contribute to observed treatment patterns in the elderly. The one best reperfusion strategy for elderly STEMI patients will likely remain undefined, but patient and treatment factors do determine its success.

# Fibrinolytic therapy

Elderly patients are underrepresented in fibrinolytic trials because of explicit age inclusions, in addition to absence of inclusion criteria [42] [60-63]. For patients up to the age of 75 years, most trials showed that fibrinolytic therapy is associated with a survival

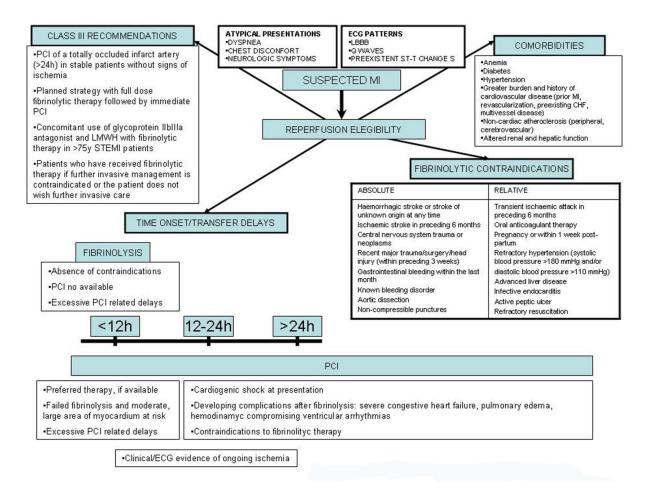
advantage similar to or greater than that seen in younger patients with STEMI. In older patients, the evidence concerning the risk/benefit ratio of thrombolysis treatment is less well established because the risk of related complications, particularly intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH), increases with age [64-67] and its efficacy may diminish [68]. Some studies have shown a survival advantage associated with the use of thrombolytic therapy in patients  $\geq$ 75 years of age with AMI [69, 70], while others found an early mortality hazard [71-73], with a long term benefit in these patients [71].

Population-based studies have suggested that community-dwelling elderly patients over 75 years treated with thrombolytics have an increased risk of ICH of approximately 1.4 percent [74]. Features which confer higher risk include: age ≥75 years, female gender, black race, low body weight (<65kg in women and <80kg in men), prior stroke, systolic blood pressure >160mmHg and administration of tissue plasminogen activator as compared with other agents [74]. The risk of cardiac rupture in patients receiving thrombolytic treatment is increased in patients older than 70 years and in women, with an incidence of 0.5 to 2 percent [75-77]. This risk does not appear to be related to the intensity of anticoagulation [76]. In a cohort of 706 patients ≥75 years included in the PRIMM75 study, thrombolysis was demonstrated as the strongest predictor of free wall rupture, with a three-fold increase within the first 48h of treatment compared with those who did not receive reperfusion therapy (OR 3.62; 95% CI 0.33-1.55) [78]. Thus, the increase in the incidence of free wall rupture is the most likely cause of the lack of mortality benefit on early associated with thrombolysis.

Despite increasing risks with fibrinolytic therapy in the elderly, adverse outcomes for untreated MI remain high. Therefore, the risk of ICH must be weighed against mortality risk [69] [79, 80]. Although the reperfusion therapy is favorable regardless of age, small sample size results in less certainty of benefit for those aged over 85 years. Two observational studies found that the benefit from thrombolytic therapy in younger patient groups did not extend to the extremes of age (>80 years and ≥85 years, respectively) [73] [77]. In a group of very elderly patients with STEMI (age ≥89 years) [81], those receiving thrombolytic therapy had a 44% mortality rate, largely owing to myocardial rupture. Hence, concerns persist in observational data that very elderly

patients may experience short-term adverse effects from thrombolytic therapy sufficient to counterbalance benefits. The ACC/AHA guidelines for management of myocardial infarction in 1999 recommended thrombolytic administration in patients younger than 75 years with acute ischemic symptoms associated with ST elevation or LBBB who present within 12 hours of symptom onset but with acknowledged disagreement on recommendations for patients with this presentation that are older than 75 years [82]. In contrast, the European guidelines [39],

and the updated AHA/ACC guidelines [40, 41] no longer classify thrombolytic therapy recommendations for ST elevation or LBBB within 12 hours of onset differently on the basis of patient age (previously class IA indication age <75, class IIa indication age  $\ge75$ ) (Table 3). In conclusion, reperfusion therapy should always be considered if indicated, with careful attention to contraindications, patient's preferences and the special considerations of this age group (Figure2).



**Figure 2: Determinants for reperfusion therapy decision.** Reperfusion therapy should always be considered in the case of suspected MI. Time to presentation, transfer delays, specific fibrinolytic contraindications and comorbidities can balance the decision towards PCI over fibrinolytics. Class III recommendations or patient's preferences might justify the absence of reperfusion in selected cases.

### **PCI**

Results from several studies and data base reviews suggest that primary angioplasty in experienced

centers is associated with improved outcomes compared with thrombolytic strategies in the elderly patients with STEMI [83-89]. Few small trials have been performed to specifically address the question of

Table 4: Reperfusion therapy studies. Age limits for inclusion are specified. Efficacy refers to primary endpoint

STUDY	AGE	Primary	MEAN	TREATMENT	EFFI	CACY	(	COMPLIC	CATION	S
	LIMITS	endpoint	AGE				STR	OKE	BLEE	DING
Zijstra et	≤75 years	Recurrent	59±10	PTCA (n=70)	9%		0%		3%	
al [51]		ischemia before discharge	61±9	SK (n=72)	38%	p<0.001	3%	NS	8%	NS
Ribeiro	<75 years	Infarct related	57±10	PTCA (n=50)	74%				0	
et al [85]		artery patency 48h postreated	55±10	SK (n=50)	80%	NS			0	NS
Grinfield	none	TIMI 3 flow		PTCA (n=54)	95%					
et al [86]		infarct related artery pre- discharge		SK (n=58)	63.6%	P=0.01				
Grines	none	In hospital re-	60±11	PTCA (n=195)	2.6%	P=0.06	0%	P=0.09	12.3%	NS
et al [50]		infarction	60±11	t-PA (n=200)	6.5%	F-0.00	1.5%	r=0.09	8%	149
Zijstra et	none	Death/nonfatal	63±11	PTCA (n=47)	4%		2%			
al [87]		stroke/reinfarction at 6m	59±12	SK (n=53)	20%	P=0.02	4%	NS		
Ribichini	<80	Reinfarction/rest		PTCA (n=24)	4%					
et al [88]		angina prior discharge		t-PA (n=26)	2.8%	P=0.01				
Garcia et al [89]	>18 years	In hospital death	63(53- 70)	PTCA (n=109)	9%	P=0.02	0%	P=0.08	2.8%	NS
			60(53- 74)	t-PA (n=111)	10.8%	1 0.02	2.7%	1 0.00	3.6%	115
GUSTO	none	Recurrent	59±10	PTCA (n=573)	9.6%		0.2% <sup>a</sup>		40.3%	
IIb[43]	14.14%>75	ischemia before discharge	61±9	t-PA (n=565)	13.6%	P=0.033	0.9%ª	NS	34.2%	NS
Grines et	≥70years	Death or disabling	78±6	PTCA (n=252)	11.3%	NG	0.8%			
al [91]		stroke	77±6	Lytic (n=229)	13%	NS	2.2%	NS		
Goldberg	≥70years	Composite of	77±5	PTCA (n=44)	29%		2%		0% <sup>b</sup>	
et al [54]		death, reinfarction, need for revascularization 6m	76±5	t-PA (n=86)	93%	P=0.001	1%	NS	17% <sup>b</sup>	P=0. 03
De Boer et al [90]	>75 years	Composite of death, reinfarction	80 (77- 84)	PTCA (n=46)	20%	P=0.003	2.0%	P=0.34	11%	
		or stroke at 1y	81 (78- 84)	SK (n=41)	44%	r-0.003	7.0%	г-0.34	7%	P=0.72
Bardaji et al [93]	≥70years	In hospital mortality	81.5±4.6	No treat (n=172)	26.7%	NIC	1.2%	D=0.06	2.9%	D=0.01
			79.8±4	Lytic (n=146)	21.2%	NS	5.5%	P=0.06	6.8%	P=0.01
			79.4±3.8	PTCA (n=92)	23.9%		2.2%		12%	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Percentage of disabling strokes

fibrinolytic therapy or PCI in elderly STEMI patients (Table 4). The first trial showed that patients >75 years treated with PCI had lower rates of death, MI, or stroke at 1 year (20% versus 44%; *P*=0.003) compared to streptokinase [90]. The mortality difference was not

a consistent finding across the studies [54], but PCI derived greater benefits both in terms of efficacy (lesser need for subsequent revascularization, reinfarction) and safety (lesser rates of stroke and bleeding) [54] [90-92]. However, PCI advantages

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Major bleeding

were confined to patients 70 to 80 years of age. Among those >80 years, there was no advantage of one strategy over the other [91]. A national registry that compared PCI, lytics and no reperfusion in AMI patients ≥75 years [93] found no mortality differences in this age group. However, excessive treatment delays and other deficiencies and inconsistencies in healthcare were highlighted, reinforcing the necessity for improving other measures than the reperfusion therapy itself. A recent multicenter study evaluated

the short and long term outcomes of nonagenarians with STEMI systematically treated with primary PCI [94]. Their results on in-hospital mortality rate (19%) and predictors for 6 month mortality (cardiogenic shock at presentation, TIMI flow after PCI and abciximab) suggested that selected nonagenarians with AMI might also benefit from successful primary angioplasty.

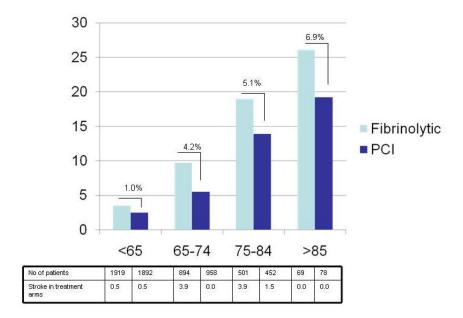


Figure 3: PCAT-2 collaborators [95]. Absolute mortality benefit of PCI with increasing age according to reperfusion strategies. The absolute mortality benefit increases from 1% at 65 years to 6.9% at ≥85 years of age. The number of patients includes with increasing age.

Pooled trials analyses can provide statistical confirmation of the mortality advantage with PCI in individual trials [83]. A review of 23 trials of PCI versus fibrinolytic therapy with longer follow-up (6 to 18 months) also found PCI to be superior for the reduction of death, reinfarction, stroke, and ICH [55]. The Primary Coronary Angioplasty Trialists' (PCAT) investigators pooled 11 randomized trials of PCI versus fibrinolytic therapy conducted from 1989 through 1996 (n=2635) [95]. In this analysis, PCI was favoured for reducing the 30-day mortality rate (13.3% versus 23.6%; P < 0.05) among the elderly (≥70 years of age; n=640). The absolute mortality benefits of PCI were greater in high-risk patients, and the risk for hemorrhagic stroke was lower with PCI risk=0.34; P=0.009). The (relative investigators expanded the analysis to include 22 randomized trials of PCI versus fibrinolytic therapy. There was a benefit with PCI, particularly if the patient arrived 2 hours after symptom onset or if the patient was ≥65 years of age [96]. A subgroup analysis found that the absolute mortality advantage of PCI increased with age from 1% at 65 years to 6.9% at ≥85 years of age (Figure 3). Therefore, PCI is an effective strategy in preventing reinfarction and future revascularization. In the elderly, PCI is appealing because it can be applied in the absence of clear ST-segment elevation or chest pain and is effective despite hemodynamic status [40]. Two considerations deserve special consideration: the timing and availability of PCI, and cardiogenic shock at presentation.

Table 5. Considerations for selecting reperfusion therapy in the elderly

PCI	FIBRINOLYTICS	NO REPERFUSION
<ul> <li>Normal renal function</li> <li>PCI can be performed without excessive delay (&lt;1h) compared to fibrinolysis</li> <li>Presentation &gt;6h of symptom</li> </ul>	Diminished renal function	Too risky
onset  • Not known or suspected severe, diffuse vascular disease  • Increased risk of ICH	Delay to PCI would be excessive (>1h) compared to fibrinolysis	• Too late
<ul> <li>Shock at presentation</li> <li>Contraindications to fibrinolytic therapy</li> <li>Absence ST elevation/pain</li> </ul>	Can have the lytic within 2-3h from symptom onset	Too small infarct (stable patient)
Absolute benefits of PCI are greater in correlation to baseline risk	The greater benefit of fibrin specific agents may be offset by more ICH compared to SK	1

PCI: percutaneous coronary intervention. ICH: intracranial hemorrhage

The timing and availability of PCI often involve transfers. The Primary Angiography in patients transferred from General community hospitals to specialized PTCA Units with or without Emergency thrombolysis-2 (PRAGUE-2) trial found no difference in death/MI with PCI or fibrinolytic therapy (streptokinase) if subjects were treated within 3 hours from symptom onset (7.4% versus 7.3%) [97]. The Comparison Angioplasty of and Prehospital Thrombolysis in Acute Myocardial Infarction (CAPTIM) trial shortened this interval to 2 hours and found that fibrinolytic therapy had a mortality advantage in this window (2.2% versus 5.7%; P=0.058) [98]. However, the Beyond 12 hours' Reperfusion AlternatiVe Evaluation (BRAVE-2) trial demonstrated that delayed PCI in STEMI patients who present >12 hours from symptom onset still reduced infarct size [99]. This is important because the elderly often present late and average delays to treatment are longer in practice settings than in clinical trials. The 2007 focused update [100] recommends rescue PCI, among others, in fibrinolytic treated STEMI patients meeting high risk criteria: cardiogenic shock, hemodynamic or electrical instability, persistent ischemic symptoms. These recommendations are based on the results of the REACT (Rescue

Angioplasty versus Conservative treatment or Repeat Thrombolysis) trial [101], which showed a clear benefit of rescue PCI (over repeated doses of fibrinolytics or medical management) in moderate to high risk patients who failed reperfusion, as well as meta-analysis of 8 rescue PCI trials (including REACT) [101-104]. Two recent trials have helped inform 2009 focused update [41]: the CARESS-in-AMI trial and the TRANSFER-in-AMI trial. CARESS-in-AMI studied only patients <75 years [105]. The percentage of patients ≥75 years in TRANSFER-in-AMI trial was 9.2%, and cardiogenic shock was an exclusion criteria [106]. Both studies found that high-risk STEMI patients treated at non-PCI hospitals improved outcomes when transferred immediately to a PCI facility rather than when medical therapy was continued with transfer for rescue PCI only if there was evidence of failed reperfusion. On the basis of this evidence, the guidelines now recommend that high risk patients who receive fibrinolytic therapy as primary reperfusion therapy at a non-PCI capable facility should be transferred as soon as possible to a PCI-capable facility where PCI can be performed. Consideration should be given to initiating a preparatory antithrombotic (anticoagulant plus antiplatelet)

regimen before and during patients transfer to Evidence B), and this is especially relevant in the catheterization laboratory (Class IIa, Level of elderly [39, 41,100].

Table 6: Antiplatelet agents in elderly STEMI subgroups included in clinical trials

DRUG	STUDY	AGE LIMITS	ELDERLY n(%)	PRIMARY EFF END POINT, EL		SIGNIFICA BLEEDING OVI		SIGNIFCANT BI ELDERI	
	CLARITY [108]	18-75	Age>65y	Clop: 19%	NS	Clop: 1.9%	P=0.8	No increase in ble	
Clopidogrel	[100]	years	1015 (29%)	Plac: 23.1%	145	Plac: 1.7%	1 0.0	clop by a	ge
	COMMIT		Age≥70y	Clop: 14.9%		Clop: 0.58%		Clop: 0.84%	
	[111]	none	11934 (26%)	Plac: 16.2%	NSª	Plac: 0.55%	P=0.59	Plac: 0.72%	P=0.48
Abciximab	GUSTO-V	Age	Age >75y	Abc:18.3%	P=0.83	Abc: 4.6%	P<0.001	Abc <sup>b</sup> : 4.6%	NS
	[47]	≥18y	2237 (13%)	No Abc: 17.9%	1-0.63	No Abc: 2.3%	1 <0.001	No Abc <sup>b</sup> : 2.3%	143
Ticagrelor	PLATO		Age≥75y	Ticag: 16.8%		Ticag: 11.6%		Ticag: 14.2%	
(37,62% STEMI)	[115]	none	2878 (15%)	Clop: 18.3%	NS	Clop: 11.2%	P=0.43	Clop: 13.3%	NS
Prasugrel	TRITON	Age	Age≥75y	Plas: 17.2%		Plas: 2.4%		Plas: 4.3%	
(26% STEMI)	TIMI 38 [112]	≥18y	1809 (13.29%)	Clop: 18.3%	NS	Clop: 1.8%	P=0.03	Clop: 3.3%	P=0.10°

Clop: Clopidogrel. Plac: Placebo. Abc: Abciximab. Ticag: Ticagrelor. Pras:Prasugrel. NS: Non significant

The mortality rate for STEMI patients with shock is high regardless of reperfusion [107, 108]. According to the SHOCK study, a reduction in mortality at six months was observed either with angioplasty or bypass, but only in those aged under 75 years [107]. Although certain studies suggest a benefit on mortality after early revascularization in elderly patients selected according to individual criteria [109-111], current guidelines make a clear difference according to age. In the presence of cardiogenic shock, class I recommendation is given for patients <75 years, whereas in those ≥75 years the level of recommendation is II [100].

Taking all these data together, we may conclude that an invasive strategy is generally preferred. When a skilled PCI operator/team is available, and can perform the invasive procedure without delay (door to balloon time <90 minutes or within 1 hour of fibrinolytic administration), it is preferable to take the STEMI patient to the catheterization laboratory rather than administer fibrinolysis. Because of the increased risk of ICH with fibrinolysis with advanced age, the elderly patient is probably better treated with PCI, provided there is no excessive delay. As coronary thrombi mature over time, they become increasingly

resistant to fibrinolysis. Thus, PCI is the preferred reperfusion strategy if more than 3 hours have elapsed from the onset of symptoms, again assuming there is no significant delay in the anticipated time to balloon inflation. Finally, when the diagnosis is in doubt, an invasive strategy is clearly preferred; not only does it provide key diagnostic information regarding the patients' symptoms, but it also diminishes the risk of ICH associated with fibrinolysis (Figure 2/Table 5).

## Ancillary antithrombotic therapy

The ideal adjunctive antithrombin therapy with reperfusion is of relevance to the elderly. It has been demonstrated that lower doses of **unfractionated heparin (UFH)** can reduce the rate of ICH associated with fibrinolytic therapy in the elderly [45] [112]. Subgroup analysis in the ASSENT-3 trial suggested similar benefits of **low-molecular-weight heparin** over weight-adjusted UFH in reducing the 30-day composite of death, in-hospital reinfarction, refractory ischemia, ICH, or major bleeding when given in combination with full-dose tenecteplase in patients with STEMI >75 years of age [46]. The high risk of ICH observed with enoxaparin in the ASSENT-3

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Upper limit of the 95% CI<1.0 for the relative risk of the primary end point with clopidogrel vs placebo

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Intracranial bleeding

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Was significant in the high risk bleeding group: .75y/prior stroke/60kg

PLUS [49] may relate to excessive dosing, unadjusted to a decreased creatinine clearance in the elderly. Dose reductions were successful in limiting enoxaparin-associated bleeding in The Enoxaparin Versus Unfractionated Heparin With Fibrinolysis for ST Elevation Myocardial Infarction (ExTRACT-TIMI- 25) [113, 114]. The Organization for the Assessment of Strategies for Ischemic Syndromes (OASIS-6) trial studied fondaparinux, a newer agent that proved to be beneficial (reduced the rate of 30day death or MI) in STEMI patients receiving fibrinolytic therapy or no reperfusion [115]. Among the older group of patients ( $\geq$ 62 years of age), fondaparinux demonstrated greater absolute risk reduction for the primary end point (2.7% versus 0.5%) along with a lower rate of bleeding [115]. The Hirulog and Early Reperfusion/Occlusion-2 investigators reported no difference in 30-day mortality in patients ≥65 years of age with STEMI treated with **bivalirudin** or weight-adjusted UFH as adjunct to streptokinase, but noted a trend toward lower in-hospital reinfarction in the bivalirudin-treated patients [48]. In The European ImproveR registry [116], bivalirudin effectively suppressed ischemic complications while maintaining a low rate of hemorrhagic consequences in several high-risk subgroups, including the elderly (age >65 years). Therefore, Bivalirudin represents an exciting alternative to UFH plus GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor in patients undergoing urgent and elective PCI with similar suppression of ischemic events, fewer bleeding complications, and the potential for greater cost savings and ease of administration [39-41].

Table 7. Strategies to prevent bleeding complications related to antithrombotic therapy in the elderly

## **ESTABLISHED STRATEGIES**

- Adjust dose of GP IIbIIIa inhibitors, enoxaparin for patients with renal insuffiency
- Consider bivaluridin use for PCI
- Consider low dose Aspirin (81mg) for chronic antiplatelet therapy
- Avoid triple anticoagulant therapy (Aspirin, clopidogrel, warfarin) when possible, including preferential use of bare metal stents to avoid long term and therapy during warfarin treatment

## **POTENTIAL STRATEGIES**

- Reduce dose of chronic prasugrel, or preferential use of clopidogrel
- Adjust doses of aspirin and clopidogrel based upon point-of-care platelet function assays
- Assess for genetic polimorphisms to characterize potential response to long term thienopiridine use
- PCI: use radial artery routinely versus femoral artery

GP IIbIIIa inhibitors: glucoprotein IIbIIIa inhibitors PCI: percutaneus coronary intervention

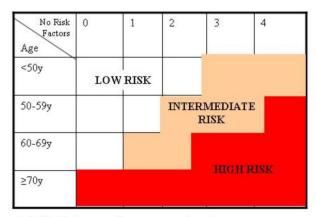
The ideal adjunctive antiplatelet therapy is also of interest in this population (Table 6). Aspirin is recommended for routine administration to older patients with AMI [39-41]. The addition of **clopidogrel** to aspirin in STEMI patients was studied in 2 trials, one of which did not enroll any patients >75 years of age [114]. Patients aged 65-75 years (n=1015; 29%), however, showed that treatment with a loading dose of 300 mg of clopidogrel followed by a daily dose of 75 mg resulted in a 19 percent reduction in the odds of an occluded infarct related artery or death or recurrent MI by the time of angiography, without significant differences in bleeding rates when

compared to placebo [114]. The other study [117] found that clopidogrel without a loading dose in addition to aspirin was beneficial over placebo for reducing the rates of death, MI, or stroke in the overall population, but this was not significant in any subgroup, including those determined by age. There were increases in bleeding with dual antiplatelet regimens but no differing trend in risk as a function of older age [117]. The TRITON-TIMI 38 trial underscores the clinical significance of including elderly patients in ACS/PCI trials [118, 119]. The overall population derived a significant 19% relative risk reduction for the primary end point (30-day)

#### Risk classification. PTCA collaborators [95]

#### Risk factors:

- ·Anterior myocardial infarction
- ·Prior myocardial infarction
- •Systolic blood pressure <115 mmHg
- •Pulse rate >85 bpm



Risk classification PRIMM75 model [138]. Multivariable analysis for 30-day mortality as compared to using predictors from the TIMI and GUSTO [9] models

Risk classification. PRIMM75	TIMI	GUSTO		
Variable	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	
Killip Class				
•Ⅱ	1.7 (0.9,3.2)	1.6 (0.8,3.0)	1.7 (0.9,3.2)	
•Ⅲ	1.3 (0.5,3.1)	1.6 (0.7,3.9)	1.8 (0.7,4.2)	
•IV	16.1 (5.7,45.6)	20.5 (6.9,60)	20.4 (6.9,60)	
Delay to admission >24h	3.5 (1.4,8.9)			
Age >75 (per year)	1.06 (1.01,1.12)	1.07 (1.02,1.13)	1.07 (1.02,1.13)	
Heart rate (bpm)	1.02 (1.01,1.04)	1.03 (1.01,1.04)	1.03 (1.01,1.04)	
Glucose level at admission (per mg/dl)	1.01 (1.00, 1.01)			
Hypercholesterolemia	0.5 (0.2, 0.9)			

Figure 4. Risk assessment in different score models

cardiovascular death, nonfatal MI, or nonfatal stroke) with **prasugrel** versus clopidogrel. Elderly patients (age ≥75 years) constituted only 13% of the overall population. Their 6% relative risk reduction with prasugrel versus clopidogrel was nonsignificant, in contrast to the 25% relative risk reduction in younger patients. Current guidelines give prasugrel the same level of recommendation as clopidogrel for primary and nonprimary PCI, without age restrictions (Table 3) [100]. However, current prasugrel labeling recommends against its general use in patients ≥75 years old [120]. Prasugrel has not been studied in patients who have received fibrinolytic therapy. Thus, for STEMI patients undergoing nonprimary PCI who received prior fibrinolytic therapy without a thienopyridine, only a loading dose with clopidogrel should be given as the thienopyridine of choice [100].

Few randomized studies have evaluated the benefit of glycoprotein (GP) IIb/IIIa antagonists in patients

over 75 years. Newer GP IIb/IIa inhibitors appear efficacious in patients older than 70 years, although net benefit may decline with increasing age. In clinical trials, bleeding risk was increased about two fold with GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors, with the risk being about 2 percent [121]. Registry data confirmed this twofold greater risk in patients undergoing PCI who receive GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors compared with those who do not [122]. A review of the Food and Drug administration [123] found that deaths related to GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors treatment (mean age 69y) were associated with excessive bleeding, with ICH the most common site. The GUSTO-V [47], ASSENT-3 [46], and ASSENT-3 PLUS [49] trials also showed consistently higher ICH risk among elderly patients receiving halfdose fibrinolysis plus intravenous GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors versus fibrinolysis alone. Accordingly, the current ACC/AHA treatment guidelines recommend against GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors use in elderly patients

with STEMI receiving fibrinolysis [100]. Clinical trials assessing GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors in elderly PCI treated patients show conflicting results. Whereas in the Abciximab before Direct Angioplasty and Stenting in Myocardial Infarction Regarding Acute and Long-Term Follow-up (ADMIRAL) Trial the observed benefit (reduction of death, reinfarction and urgent target vessel revascularization in total at 30 days and at 6 months) was higher in elderly than in younger patients [124], in the CADILLAC Trial abciximab use in elderly patients showed not net benefit but a slight increase of thrombocytopenia occurrence [125]. Importantly, in previous studies GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors during PCI in elderly patients was associated only with increased risk of minor bleeding complications, without excess of transfusions, and ICH rates [126]. A recent subanalysis of the elderly patients (≥65 years) from the EUROTRANSFER (European Registry on Patients with ST-Elevation MI Transferred for Mechanical Reperfusion with a Special Focus on Upstream Use of Abciximab) [127] did not found higher risk of major bleeding, with comparable benefits to the younger group. Given the results of these studies it could be suggested that, in patients with STEMI, GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors may be used in primary angioplasty with coronary stenting [124], provided that contraindications have been ruled out (stroke, surgery or recent trauma, coagulation disorders, hepatic insufficiency, active hemorrhage, severe arterial hypertension), and after careful analysis of the trade-off between benefit and risks has been made [128]. Overall, it is important to consider specific measures to prevent bleeding complications in this population (Table 7).

Table 8. Factors contributing to the STEMI Age-Mortality relationship

## Physiological aging of the heart

- Decreased speed of myofibril contraction
- Decreased length of contraction
- Increased cardiac stiffness: diastolic dysfunction
- Increased LV mass: Increased LVEDV, LVESV
- Increased arterial stiffness: intimal medial thickness/dilation
- Conduction system fibrosis and sinus node dysfunction
- Decreased response to adrenergic stimulation (rate and contractility)
- Altered vascular tone: endothelial dysfunction

# Physiological aging of other systems

# Other common comorbidities in the elderly

- Altered plasma volume distribution
- Altered renal and hepatic function
- Altered coagulation activity (†factor VIII, fibrinogen)
- Altered fibrinolytic activity (\plasmin/antiplasmin complex, D-dimer)
- Inflammation (†hs-CRP, IL-6)
- Deficient wound healing
- Decreased pain sensing (ischemic)

- Anemia
- Diabetes
- Hypertension
- Greater burden and history of cardiovascular disease (prior MI, revascularization, preexisting CHF, multivessel disease)
- Non-cardiac atherosclerosis (peripheral, cerebrovascular)

LV: left ventricular. LVEDV: left ventricular end-diastolic volume. LVESV: left ventricular end-systolic volume. MI: myocardial infarction. CHF: cardiac heart failure. hs-CRP: high sensitive C-reactive protein. IL-6: interleukin 6.

# **OUTCOMES**

Mortality after STEMI increases exponentially with age [9] [37] [80] [129, 130]. In the GUSTO-I trial, the 30-day mortality rate increased 10-fold, from 3.0% among patients <65 years to 30.3% among those ≥85 years of age [37]. Total stroke and nonfatal disabling stroke increase more gradually with age and occur less

commonly than death, with overall rate of <3% among patients ≥85 years of age [9]. Observations from GRACE investigators showed that those patients aged 85 years or older with AMI had adjusted odds of death during the initial hospitalization more than 15 times greater than that of a patient under age 45 years [33]. The TRIANA registry found that elderly AMI patients treated in Spanish hospitals evolved

unfavorably during admission, with high incidence of mortality (24.1%) and complications [93]. Neither thrombolysis nor primary angioplasty improved 30-day mortality.

Although strokes are often fatal, death from other causes is still the most common adverse outcome in the elderly with STEMI. The high rate of death in the elderly corresponds to the frequent occurrence of electric and mechanical catastrophes, specifically free wall rupture and cardiogenic shock. These risks mirror age-related fundamental changes in cardiac anatomy [129] [131-133]: decreased vascular compliance, ventricular hypertrophy and remodeling, diastolic dysfunction and diminished response to adrenergic stimulation in the elderly (altered baroreceptor and βreceptor function lower heart rate and increase blood pressure during the acute event). Reduced lung and renal function make these organs prone to complications [129] [132] (Table 8). Heart failure and pulmonary edema, complications along this spectrum of adverse occurrences, occur in more than half of patients ≥75 years and 65% of patients ≥85 years of age [134]. Shock (hypotension with hypoperfusion) occurs in >10% of patients ≥75 years of age and is known to be due to ventricular or papillary muscle rupture or to advanced ventricular dysfunction [131] [135, 136]. In 706 elderly (age ≥75 years) STEMI patients, free wall rupture was more common in those treated with thrombolytic therapy (17.1%) than in either patients treated with PCI (4.9%) or who received no reperfusion (7.9%) [78]. Fibrinolytic therapy may have unique adverse myocardial effects in those of advanced age. Myocardial edema, contraction band necrosis, and intramyocardial hemorrhage are commonly noted at autopsy in elderly hearts after fibrinolysis [137]. The ability of STEMI treatments to improve outcomes in the very elderly, given their known physiological differences, is a question for future research. A subset of variables, most of them available at the moment of first medical attention, has recently shown their ability to adequately predict early mortality [138]. It led to the development and validation of a risk model especially calibrated for elderly patients, which could be proposed as complementary tool to choose the best approach in this population. Overall, this should be an individualized approach, aimed to provide the optimum outcome and most humanistic alternative in these relatively common and extremely lethal complications (Figure 2/Figure 4) [9][95][132] [138, 139].

## **CONCLUSION**

The cardiovascular care of elderly STEMI patients should take place within the context of their multidimensional health status. Physicians should be aware of the atypical clinical presentations, as well as altered pharmacokinetics and the often altered cognitive and functional status of elderly patients. Up to 85 years of age, studies suggest a benefit associated with reperfusion strategies. The choice between fibrinolytics or PCI is determined by the presence or absence of cardiogenic shock, time from presentation, and comorbidity, which often tip the balance towards PCI in the elderly. The safety and efficacy of reperfusion, specifically fibrinolytic therapy, in the very elderly (≥85 years of age) are issues that require further investigation.

#### **Abbreviations:**

AMI: acute myocardial infarction; CAD:coronary artery disease; ECG: electrocardiographic; MI: myocardial infarction; ACS: acute coronary syndrome; STEMI: ST segment elevation MI; NRMI: National Registry of Myocardial infarction; LBBB: left bundle branch block; cTn: cardiac troponin; PIVUS: Prospective Investigation of the Vasculature in Uppsala Seniors; GRACE: Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events; PCI: percutaneous coronary intervention; ICH: intracerebral hemorrhage; PCAT: Primary Coronary Angioplasty Trialists; UFH: unfractionated heparin; GP: glycoprotein

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